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ABSTRACT

This monograph examines the content and quality of counselor education programs and activities in both preservice and inservice training. It describes selected preservice programs and discussed the components that make them effective. It then presents various theoretical training models, with recommendations for innovative techniques that counselor educators might wish to include in their own programs. Inservice training approaches are similarly investigated, including specific discussion of the use of on-staff personnel, outside consultants, and outside experiences. A final section offers suggestions to service deliverers for ways to coordinate their professional efforts so as to improve the quality of their services. (Author)

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Striving for **EXCELLENCE**

in Preservice and Inservice Training of Counselors

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Originally from Ohio, Dr. Hart is now an Associate Professor in the Department of Counseling Psychology at Temple University, which he joined in 1970. He received his Bachelor's and Master's degrees from Ohio University and Bowling Green State University, and Ph.D. from Michigan State University. At Temple, his main interests are in program development and supervision, especially in the secondary school counseling programs. Within professional organizations Dr. Hart has assumed 'eadership in the areas of licensure for counselors and continuing professional development for counselor educators and supervisors. He is currently on the Executive Board of the local and state personnel and guidance associations, is President of the Pennsylvania Association of Counselor Education and Supervision, and chairs a national committee for the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision. More personally, Dr. Hart lives in suburban Philadelphia with his wife Judy and three children. He enjoys spending leisure time with his family, playing squash, jogging, and strumming his guitar.

ABOUT THIS MONOGRAPH

This monograph examines the content and quality of counselor education programs and activities in both preservice and inservice training. The author describes selected preservice programs and discusses the components that make them effective. He presents various theoretical training models, with recommendations for innovative techniques that counselor educators might wish to include in their own programs. Inservice training approaches are similarly investigated, including specific discussion of the use of on-staff personnel, outside consultants, and outside experiences. A final section offers suggestions to service deliverers for ways to coordinate their professional efforts so as to improve the quality of their services and reach the goal sought in all aspects of counselor training--excellence.

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Section I

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Introduction

Striving for excellence--a process in which counselor educators, consultants, and counselors themselves have engaged for years. As the world of the counselor has changed since 1962, when Gilbert Wrenn wrote his classic volume, The Counselor in a Changing World, so also have training programs changed. Have we now attained excellence in counselor education? The purpose of this monograph is to analyze both preservice and inservice counselor training programs and activities to try to find the answer to that question.

Two factors must be considered in any examination of what is occurring in counselor training. First, the development of programs and activities is affected by the theories and theorists dominant at the time. For example, the influence on counseling of Rogerians, of proponents of the group approach, of behaviorists and eclectics, has resulted in changes in program content and emphases, and has caused the programs to become an amalgamation of accepted principles and thought. True understanding of why and how counselors are trained can only come through knowledge of historical developments and their impact on the counseling field.

Second, the economic outlook for counselors affects how they will be educated, both as students and as practitioners. When jobs and funds were plentiful, counselor training institutions expanded their staffs and facilities and inservice programs flourished, with little thought given to the impact of the training on counselors or

their clients. Now that funds are scarce, programs and activities are being planned with exceeding care. The economic picture is forcing professionals to evaluate all of their activities in terms of efficiency and outcomes.

In the late 1950's, an explosion of counselor training programs occurred in response to the creation across the country of hundreds of new school counselor positions. The demand for counselors was high and the supply was small. Money for training was available through the National Defense Education Act, and universities geared up quickly during this period of rapid growth to develop training experiences for counselors. Too often during a rising market the emphasis is on quantity to meet the demands of consumers, not on quality as determined by objective criteria--striving for excellence can be submerged by the pressures of time and numbers.

Although growth has slowed, counseling today is still a young profession that is learning about itself as it matures. If counseling professionals are to be able to determine whether or not they are achieving excellence in training school and agency counselors, they must first examine certain structural variables of training programs and note significant trends. Then they must analyze specific components of training programs such as approaches, materials, philosophy, curriculum, and technology in order to make value judgments about the efficacy and efficiency of each component. Based on these judgments, they can examine their programs more critically and modify

them accordingly.

Yet, even if excellence can be attained through a training program at a college or university, does that insure that this excellence will be maintained throughout the counselor's professional life? Preservice training only provides fundamental skills that need to be tested and refined by practicing counselors. As client populations and client needs change, so must the knowledge and skills of counselors who must work with these clients. A large attitude shift among counselors, trainers, and supervisors has occurred toward the position that counseling professionals need continuing education throughout their professional lives. Counselors in schools and agencies throughout the country are demanding new skills, new knowledge, and personal coping strategies.

Several conditions are currently operating to support the need for inservice training for counselors. One is the tremendous amount of knowledge which has been generated in the social sciences and in counseling and psychology, particularly during the last 10 years. Today's counselor may have had little or no formal preparation in approaches such as group counseling, techniques such as systematic desensitization, or theories such as transactional analysis. Inservice training can help counselors to update their existing knowledge and skills.

Counselors may also experience a dramatic difference between the roles for which they have been trained and the tasks required of

them by their particular school or agency. Inservice training can help them acquire the skills and knowledge specific to a school or agency's procedures, population, or system of delivery. A related factor is that as counselors become more experienced, they become more demanding of themselves and realize that what they formerly accepted as an adequate level of performance is no longer acceptable. Inservice training allows professionals the chance for self-renewal, the opportunity to realize their own urge for excellence.

A further reason for inservice training is to mitigate the stress of maintaining one's personal psychological motivation in an occupation where disappointment and emotional loss occur daily with a resulting decline in motivation and morale. Inservice training can assist counselors to establish or enhance their ability to deal with such occupational hazards.

Employers of school and agency counselors are demanding excellence. They are feeling increased pressure from students, parents, and other consumers for services of the highest quality. This pressure is being transferred to several places. One is to universities where counselor educators are being asked to modify their programs to meet the expressed needs of the schools and agencies in the community. One is to state department of education divisions of guidance or pupil personnel services which are being asked to help amend the requirements for certification of school counselors to meet the expressed needs of counselors and their clients.

University professors, state department of education staffs, and school and agency administrators all have enormous impact on shaping the direction of the counseling profession. If they have knowledge of excellent programs and can identify the factors that make them excellent, then they can adopt these new ideas and practices and/or adapt them for their own programs. Only if they know what exists, however, can they decide on its applicability and usefulness. With additional knowledge and cooperation, professionals in leadership positions can guide the profession toward a very positive and constructive future.

Overview

This review of approaches and techniques of counselor preservice and inservice training is based on a thorough study of over 200 references from the literature on counseling. The programs cited have been identified as exemplary by the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision. The approach taken throughout the monograph is intended to be practical and of immediate use to those who would strive for excellence in training counselors both before and after they enter the field.

Section II of this paper examines preservice training of counselors from a number of perspectives. First, counselor training programs across the country are described in relation to structural characteristics such as number of programs, number of staff, and

program emphases. With this information as a base, attention is given next to specific training models that include didactic-experiential, systematic human relations training, microcounseling, skills-training, Interpersonal Process Recall, and the systems approach to building training models. Following this is a discussion of effective components of programs such as practicum, audio and video technology, personal growth experiences, and supervision. The section concludes with a series of specific recommendations for counselor educators who want to incorporate new techniques into their training programs, as well as recommendations regarding philosophical and curricular changes for those professionals who wish to anticipate the next decade and begin to develop future-oriented innovations.

Section III reviews approaches and programs for inservice training of counselors. This portion lists the purposes of inservice training and discusses relevant issues, including definition, governance, delivery systems, financing, and effectiveness. Specific approaches to inservice training are thoroughly described and include use of on-staff personnel, outside consultants, and experiences outside the school or agency. Following this section is a comprehensive review of inservice training programs and formats for delivering inservice training gleaned from the counseling literature. The section concludes with speculations and specific recommendations that may assist staff to plan more effective and efficient inservice training programs.

The best of preservice and inservice training programs will fall short of advancing counseling to its fullest potential if the professionals responsible do not coordinate their activities. Leaders of professional counselor organizations have a unique and powerful opportunity to assist in this effort. Section IV describes practical strategies to increase cooperation among and between the university, the employment setting, the state department office, and the professional organization.

Such cooperation is important for several reasons. One is to make sure that counselors in training and counselors on the job receive appropriate training. Too many courses and workshops have little practical relevance to counselors and are of interest only to the instructor of the course or workshop. Needs of the counselors must be carefully assessed so that the course or workshop can be tailored to meet those needs.

Another reason for cooperation is that so many courses, workshops, programs, and institutes have come into existence within the last few years that many counselors are justifiably confused about. the quality and specific content of these offerings. A cooperative effort by professionals and professional organizations might not only help counselors to choose the most appropriate activities, but also avoid overlap in what activities are offered. With the trend toward licensure of counselors, cooperation among the providers of preservice training and inservice training, the employers of counselors,

professional organizations, and counselors themselves will undoubtedly become an imperative.

The message is clear: In order to provide the highest quality in preservice and inservice counselor training, counselor educators, employers, state and local supervisors, and leaders of professional organizations must unite. Together they must provide strong leadership to insure that training programs at any level are geared to needs and that the experiences therein deliver the skills and knowledge to meet those needs. Only by combining their efforts can they create and maintain programs that will help counselors to achieve the excellence for which they strive.

Section II

PRESERVICE TRAINING

Status of Preservice Training

Major attempts to assess the structural elements of counselor training programs have been made by Jones (1975) and Hollis and Wantz (1974, 1977). Hollis and Wantz (1977) reported on 475 of 512 counselor training programs conducted mostly at the master's degree level. Jones (1975) surveyed the programs listed by Hollis and Wantz (1974) on program characteristics, and subjects such as counselor licensure, competency-based certification, and manpower needs in guidance and counseling. From these surveys a number of major trends can be discerned as to the focus of counselor training programs. These are presented here to give the reader a view of the structure of current programs and a sense of their direction. Following this brief overview, effective program components are described in detail so that readers may analyze their own programs and, if some components are lacking, consider incorporating these components into their programs. Finally, recommendations are offered for planning programs that will respond effectively to needs of the next decade and beyond.

Based on the Hollis and Wantz (1977) data, from 1964 to 1977 the number of counselor training programs increased by 39% (126 programs) and from 1974 to 1977 by 9% (33 programs). The number of faculty working in counselor training programs between 1964 and 1977 grew from 706 to 3,263, or approximately 360%. The mean

number of faculty members at each training program increased from 2.2 in 1964 to 7.6 in 1977. Considering that some of these faculty teach only part-time in the counselor training program, a full-time teaching equivalent was then computed. The median score for full-time teaching equivalence was about four staff members per program. Clearly, the number of faculty per institution has increased, which would suggest that there is a desire to serve students more effectively. However, no significant increase was found in the percentage of full-time faculty between 1974 and 1977, which indicates a slowing of the increase of prior years.

The number of students graduating from master's degree programs reported in the 1977 Hollis and Wantz report was almost 19,000 per year. This represents approximately 40 students from each program per year over the period 1974 to 1977. Jones (1976) studied manpower needs by surveying state and territorial supervisors of guidance (N=54) and concluded that the ratio of 1973-74 graduates of counselor training programs to available counselor positions was approximately 2.4 to 1, with only moderate growth in employment anticipated through the 1970's. Thus, programs and graduates have expanded beyond the number of available jobs.

In terms of curriculum emphasis the primary philosophical orientation for training counselors was reported (in order of frequency) as phenomenological, followed by eclectic, behavioral, and cognitive. Training programs emphasized preparation for

individual counseling more than for group or family counseling, for youth more than for children or adults, and for developmental, facilitative, or actualizing purposes more than for corrective or preventive purposes. Most of the graduates gained employment in junior and senior high schools, fewer in elementary and middle schools, and fewest in community and junior colleges. The studies also showed that significant shifts have occurred within the past three years to prepare students for counseling in noneducational settings.

Many courses have been added in recent years to counselor training programs. An informal and nonstatistically-assessed observation revealed that the courses added most frequently throughout the country were group counseling, consultation, marriage and family counseling, counseling in community agencies, and psychological testing. Many of these courses were additions to present programs rather than replacements for existing courses. Between 1974 and 1977, practicum, field experience, and internship have been added to or expanded in ongoing programs (Hollis & Wantz, 1977).

Counselor education has experienced considerable growth within the last 10 to 15 years in both number of programs and number of faculty members. The recent slowing of the rate of growth allows time now for close examination of what makes programs effective in training counselors.

Models of Training

Didactic-experiential

During the 1950's Carl Rogers had major impact on counseling, and subsequently on the training of counselors throughout the 1960's (Matarazzo, Wiens, & Saslow, 1966; Matarazzo, 1971). The client-centered approach, although popular among students and faculty, was not taught in a systematic manner until the didactic-experiential program was proposed by Truax, Carkhuff, and Douds (1964) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967). The work of these men is significant in that they operationalized concepts previously unclear to many professionals, and established rating scales to measure specific verbal counselor responses within the client-centered approach to counseling.

The didactic-experiential training program relies heavily on teaching students to identify and discriminate among various types of counselor responses. For example, students read about facilitative and nonfacilitative counselor responses and perhaps listen to an audiotape, read a typescript, or watch an instructor role-play facilitative responses. Next, students practice facilitative responses by writing responses to client statements or role-playing with another student who acts as the client. Feedback from other students or the instructor is given to students about the quality of their responses.

An additional component of the didactic-experiential training

program is participation by students in a group counseling activity. All students have the opportunity in a group setting to explore personal concerns about their work, their clients, or their attitudes that might hinder the development of their facilitative skills. These personal issues are seen as having an impact on their professional development as counselors.

Two key assumptions underly the experiential component. One is that students will be better counselors if they develop positive attitudes (within the client-centered philosophy) towards themselves and others. Patterson (1974) gives a strong rationale for promoting counselor self-actualization and relates it to professional development. The use of personal growth or quasi-counseling experiences in training is also based on the assumption that students will become better counselors if they themselves have experienced the feeling of being helped--that a counselor who knows what it feels like to be helped will be more sensitive to and consequently more effective in helping clients.

Systematic Human Relations Training

The didactic-experiential program has expanded into the systematic Human Relations Development (HRD) or Systematic Human Relations Training (SHRT) programs. One of the most thorough examinations of Carkhuff's particular HRD program is found in "New Directions in Training--Part I" (Carkhuff, 1972a).

One important change from the original formulation of the didactic-experiential model to the HRD model has been "to expand the helper dimensions from responsive to 'initiative' dimensions" (p. 7). Carkhuff states that basic facilitative conditions are not sufficient to bring about adequate behavior change among clients. Consequently, "initiative" dimensions have been added to the HRD model and include concreteness (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967), confrontation, and immediacy (Carkhuff, 1969). Furthermore, action-oriented counselor activities such as the specific steps of problem-solving, termed "program dimensions" by Carkhuff (1972), are viewed as a necessary part of any complete HRD program.

Carkhuff (1972b, p. 80) describes his HRD model as encompassing three phases--*exploration*, *understanding*, and *action*. Thus, the HRD model has moved from reliance on facilitative responses to a broader model of training that includes the teaching of a variety of phenomenological and behaviorally-oriented responses. One graduate training program that has implemented this HRD model with successful results is Northeast Louisiana University (Aspy, 1972). Other counselor training programs with successful HRD models may be found in ACES Exemplary Programs and Projects in Counselor Education and Supervision (1976). The development of techniques and technology to accomplish the phases of the HRD model are described later in Section II under Effective Components of Programs.

Microcounseling

The establishment of microcounseling through the work of Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill, and Haase (1968) was another step forward in the field of counselor education. Ivey (1971) modified the teaching methodology of the didactic-experiential approach in the following manner. First, students are videotaped as they role-play a counselor with a coached client in a brief simulated counseling session. Following the simulation, students read about specific skills of interviewing (counseling) such as attending behavior, e.g., maintaining eye contact. Next, students view a videotape of positive and negative examples of the skill to be learned. They then review the videotape of their earlier simulated counseling session with the instructor who helps the students rate their performance according to objective criteria. Finally, students conduct another brief interview which is again videotaped and critiqued by both students and instructor.

Ivey's training model involves what he calls basic attending skills and basic influencing skills, similar to Carkhuff's concepts of responding-personalizing skills and initiating skills. Brammer and Allmon (1977b) provide a description and comparison of the Carkhuff and Ivey training materials. From Ivey's innovative use of videotaped feedback, live simulation, and videotaped examples of counseling skills, other professionals have produced skills-training materials for use with professionals in training, as well as with

paraprofessionals. A selected few of the many skills-training books are mentioned here to illustrate the wealth of materials available to counselor educators who want programmed exercises for developing students' counseling skills.

Skill-training

Human Relations Development by Gazda and others (1973, 1977) is a manual for training persons in basic responding skills. These authors describe the skills and provide examples of varying degrees of facilitative and nonfacilitative responses based on Carkhuff's concepts. After students read about responses, they rate specific responses according to a scale, similar to that developed by Carkhuff, which helps them to discriminate cognitively among levels of facilitative responses. Next, students write their own responses to stimulus items, and the manual thus becomes a workbook. Students then critique each other's responses among themselves or with an instructor.

Egan has written both a text, The Skilled Helper (1975), and a training manual, Exercises in Helping Skills (1975), to train professionals and paraprofessionals in counseling skills. In the text Egan describes the helping process by outlining the stages of *helper response and client self-exploration, integrative understanding/dynamic self-understanding,* and *action programs.* These stages with

accompanying skills are similar to the HRD model and the skills described by Carkhuff (1972) and Gazda (Gazda et al., 1977). After reading the text, students respond in writing to stimulus items in the training manual and critique their responses among themselves or with an instructor. The reading material and examples in the text plus the extensive opportunities for self-directed practice in the manual comprise a thorough program for training human service workers in counseling skills.

Similar resources for skill-training include Counseling Strategies and Objectives (Hackney & Nye, 1973) and Effective Helping: Interviewing and Counseling Techniques (Okun, 1976). These books describe basic skills, give examples, and permit students to respond in writing to stimulus statements. Exercises for specific skills can be selected according to the personal preference of the instructor.

One final skill-training package is Helping Skills: A Basic Training Program (Danish & Hauer, 1973). This scheme uses a more general approach to skill-training that strongly emphasizes personal awareness on the part of the student. Students observe demonstrations of skills in a training group and then practice them in dyads or triads. Skills are not as carefully specified as in other approaches, nor is writing responses to specific client stimulus statements given much emphasis. The training group provides the opportunity for skill-practice and critique as well as for self-

awareness. In this program the stages of the training and exercises for each group session are clearly described for the instructor.

Interpersonal Process Recall

An additional approach to training has been developed chiefly by Kagan (Kagan, Krathwohl, & Miller, 1963; Kagan & Schauble, 1969; Kagan, et al., 1969; and Kagan & Krathwohl, 1967). This approach is called Interpersonal Process Recall (IPR). In Kagan's work counselors receive initial skill-training in facilitating communication, analogous to the basic skills taught by Carkhuff and Ivey. In the next phase they conduct a counseling session with a coached client which is either audio- or videotaped. Next, they are critiqued using the recall process, in which a trained inquirer helps each counselor to recall his/her attitudes and feelings while both watch the videotape of the recently completed counseling session. As Kagan states,

> In recall, students are encouraged to let themselves be immersed in the immediacy of the audio- or video-recorded interaction and to relive in as much detail as possible the thoughts, feelings, images, fantasies, strategies and perceptions that were occurring at the time of the interaction. The peer facilitator does not offer criticism or praise, but rather aids in the self-discovery process through nonthreatening exploratory leads. (Kagan, 1977, p. 617)

Institutions where IPR is used with effectiveness include Michigan State University; Antioch/New England in Keene, New Hampshire; and the University of Kansas.

In summary, Ivey may have said it best when he stated that, "The question is not which method is best, but which method for which trainer with which trainees is likely to be most effective" (Ivey, 1977, p. 616). Brammer and Allmon agree with Ivey and go on to remark, "It is also likely that blends of these and other packages will be most effective" (1977 b, p. 618).

Systems Approach to Model-Building

Counselor educators have begun to raise questions about the quality of counselors being trained (Parker, 1968). Many counselor educators have wanted to evaluate the effectiveness of their program as a whole--not just the effectiveness of individual parts. Using the ideas of learning theory, communication theory, and systems theory, counselor educators have suggested ways by which models of counselor training can be built and evaluated (Thoreson, 1969; Yelon, 1969; Winborn, Hinds, & Stewart, 1971; Horan, 1972).

An entire issue of The Counseling Psychologist, for example, (Vol. III, No. 4) called "New Directions in Training, Part II" was devoted to the systems approach. Although it is only in the beginning stages of development, the systems approach to counselor education may be found in programs at Michigan State University; University of California, Santa Barbara (Ryan, 1972); University of Minnesota (Blocher & Wolleat, 1972); and Stanford University (Krumboltz, Thoresen, & Zifferblatt, 1971). These programs differ in components but are similar in principles of organization and evaluation. Such

programs can emphasize a variety of counseling approaches, counseling theories, or counseling skills as long as these elements are functionally integrated into a whole. Most recently the systems approach has been applied to the counseling process itself so that counseling can be taught more effectively (Stewart, et al., 1978).

Parker (1968) stated five dimensions on which counselor education programs can be assessed:

1. Training or education--emphasis on specific and observable skill acquisition; or on content areas designed to increase a student's breadth of knowledge.

2. Mastery of technique or personal development--emphasis on the development of counselors as skilled practitioners of techniques; or as self-actualized beings who consequently will be helpful to others.

3. Evaluation or nonevaluation--evaluation that is continual, specific, and tied to counseling behavior; or evaluation of a more global nature that avoids the anxiety-provoking quality of personal assessment which may hinder learning.

4. One approach or many approaches--emphasis on one approach that is taught and learned well; or on a variety of approaches from which students try out and select the approach consistent with their personality and basic philosophy.

5. Client feedback or supervisor feedback--emphasis on

self-reports by clients; or on the supervisor's opinion of the skills demonstrated by the counselor (Parker, 1968, pp. 4-7).

The systems approach allows counselor educators to take a position on each of Parker's five issues, establish goals to accomplish each position, and develop a plan for attaining the goals. Evaluation is ongoing and built into the total process. Because of pressure from the community, from students themselves, and from budget-conscious university administrators, a system of training that is demonstrably effective may become imperative (Zifferblatt, 1972a, 1972b).

Effective Components of Programs

After counselor educators decide on a model of training, they need to identify the key components they wish to implement. In the past, most counselor educators have taken a microscopic view of their programs by examining the elements (courses, experiences, texts) that comprise the programs. Some agreement now exists about the components that are most important in helping students to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to be effective counselors. The components examined in this section are practicum, audio and video technology, personal growth experiences, and supervision.

Practicum

Studies on the format and activities of practicum abound

(Dreikurs & Sonstegard, 1966; Schoch, 1966; Poling, 1968a, 1968b; Delaney, Long, Massucci, & Moses, 1969; Miller, 1969; Pierce & Schauble, 1971; Truax & Lister, 1971; Delaney, 1972). Reviews by Hansen and Warner (1971) and by Hansen, Pound, and Petro (1976) of the research on practicum supervision indicate that 29 studies on practicum were conducted between 1960 and 1970, and 25 studies between 1970 and 1974. Of this latter group, 14 dealt with training procedures in supervision of practicum. A vast collection of procedures used in practicum courses has been completed by Dimick and Krause (1975) and is a valuable resource. In recent years many of the innovations have included audio and video technology. From all of these several conclusions can be drawn.

Research indicates that *specific skill-training during practicum will produce more significantly positive results than less specific training when the outcomes are measured in terms of specific skill-aquisition.* Boyd (1973) reported that students who received behavioral feedback had greater gains on two of four measures of the Counselor Verbal Response Scale than did students who received the less specific recall (IPR) feedback. Similarly, Payne, Winter, and Bell (1972) found technique-oriented supervision to produce trainees who gave higher levels of empathic responses than trainees in counseling-oriented supervision. Didactic training in specific verbal responses in a practicum group or by an individual supervisor is more effective in producing trainees who can give these responses

than training that is focused on the attitudes and feelings of the trainees about themselves and their clients.

A second conclusion that can be drawn from the research is that *skill-training should be conducted throughout a student's program, not in a single course.* Including the skill-training in a number of courses allows students to have longer exposure to skills and thus more opportunity to practice them and incorporate them into their repertoire of counseling behaviors. In addition a blend of didactic and experiential components strengthens the training program.

Research studies also indicate that *skill-training should move from the simple to the complex;* i.e. basic responding skills to program skills, little responsibility to much responsibility, simulated sessions to real sessions, and low-anxiety situations to high-anxiety situations. The learning process thus becomes a series of developmental tasks that students master through specific measured steps.

One difficulty in examining the techniques used in practicum is that the definition and purposes of practicum vary widely from institution to institution. In some universities practicum involves skill-training in verbal responses using mostly simulated counseling sessions. In other institutions skill-training is conducted in laboratory or pre-practicum courses, and practicum becomes a learning environment where students work with real clients using audio-

and videotapes. In some places, such as Temple University in Philadelphia, the pre-practicum courses are called laboratory and are followed by a year of field work in which students counsel real clients--the term practicum is not used at all. If research and program planning are to be shared among colleagues, there should be agreement about the terms used to describe program activities.

Several criteria could be used to establish common definitions of the terms laboratory, practicum, field work, and internship. One would be the use of simulated or real counseling sessions. Another would be whether the training experience took place in a university or in a community setting. A further differentiating factor would be the level of skills to be trained, i.e., basic responding skills or program skills. Communication would be greatly enhanced if counselor educators used these criteria to establish common definitions.

Audio and Video Technology

At the present time *positive and negative examples of counseling skills presented to students via film, videotape, audiotape, or in writing have been shown to produce the desired responses from students.* Most of the studies such as those conducted by Eisenberg and Delaney (1970), Stone (1975), Hart (1973), and Alssid and Hutchinson (1977) indicate that counselors can acquire new skills through training. However, the most effective medium for presenting the training has been difficult to establish.

Research has been focused on the differences between:

1. written examples, lecture, and videotape models (Kuna, 1975);
2. lecture, written learning module, and slide-tape module (Cormier, et al., 1976);
3. audiotaped models and instructions (Goldberg, 1970; Perry, 1975);
4. instructions and videotaped models (McGuire, Thelen & Amolsch, 1975; Stone & Gotlib, 1975; Martin, 1977);
5. instructions, models, and rehearsal (Stone & Vance, 1976);
6. instructions and models among persons low in interpersonal communication skills (Uhlemann, Lea, & Stone, 1976);
7. models and instructions as affected by time, task, and order (Stone & Stein, 1978).

While all of these techniques can be effective in helping trainees to acquire communication or counseling skills (Stone & Stein, 1978), the reasons for the effectiveness of the use of one or a combination of several of them remain unclear (Uhlemann, Lea & Stone, 1976). Variables such as the length of time the instructions and/or models are presented, as well as the motivation of the trainees for training, seem to be significant in learning (Eskedal, 1975). Individual differences in needs, interests, and abilities also appear to be correlated with counseling effectiveness during the training program (Tinsley & Tinsley, 1977).

The relative effectiveness of the technique chosen may depend on learner variables such as cognitive complexity (Kimberlin & Friesen, 1977). The method of presentation seems to make little difference when the examples deal with basic skills. The method of presentation seems to be more important when the session concerns feedback to the student about his/her performance in a complex learning situation such as a simulated or real counseling session.

The actual production of examples on film, and particularly on lower costing videotape, has been described in some detail by Thayer (Thayer, et al., 1972; Thayer, 1977a, 1977b); Suggs and Kandor (1976); and Brown (1977). Brown emphasizes directing the student's attention to the cues modeled on the tape, assisting the student to retain the modeling cues, and providing incentives for the student to emulate the modeled cues. Since many of the videotapes used in research studies have not been formulated with the thoroughness described by the authors cited here, answers to questions about the relative effectiveness of written, audiotape, or videotape models may acquire more in-depth examination of well-constructed models.

While such techniques are useful in presenting examples of skills to students, *audio and video technology is also helpful in the feedback process* whereby students analyze their own recorded performance. Walz and Johnston (1963) found that counselors change their perceptions of a client and themselves after viewing their

counseling session on videotape. Interestingly, counselor perceptions of videotapes typically agree closely with supervisor perceptions. This ability of counselors to evaluate themselves critically has been well documented by Kagan (1975) and is a cornerstone of his Interpersonal Process Recall approach to counselor training.

In many training programs, after a student completes a counseling session on audio- or videotape, the supervisor offers feedback to the student about his/her performance. Such recorded feedback has been compared with self-reports or written process recordings by the student. *Generally, videotape and audiotape recordings are more useful than the student's written or verbal self-report because they provide the supervisor with more objective information for evaluation.*

Little research exists on the *relative effectiveness of videotape vs. audiotape in giving feedback to students regarding counseling skills.* One study in 1970 (Markey, et al.) indicated that there were no significant differences among the use of video, audio, or audio plus video with students in training. Another study in 1972 (Ward, Kagan, & Krathwohl) reported no significant differences between audio interpersonal process recall and video interpersonal recall. Yenawine and Arbuckle (1971) found that students preferred audiotape to videotape feedback in the beginning of their training period. This sequence is used effectively in many counselor training programs. Anxiety appears to be higher when students view

themselves on videotape than when they listen to themselves on audiotape. Also, they can only attend to a certain number of cues at one time before data overload occurs. For these reasons, students need time to become accustomed to using audiotapes and videotapes.

An effective sequence using both audio- and videotape is to *proceed from stiuations that usually produce low anxiety to situations that are usually associated with higher levels of anxiety.* Common practice is for students to audiotape a counseling session, review and critique the tape alone according to a rating scheme, and later review the tape with the supervisor or the practicum group. Eventually, students review the audiotape of a counseling session immediately following the session with the supervisor or practicum group. After students have gained some initial counseling skills, some confidence about themselves, and some trust in their supervisor and practicum group, the steps described above are repeated using videotape instead of audiotape. Support for this sequence is given by Poling (1968b) who stated,

> Since there is some defensiveness and anxiety present for the counselor during the first videotaped session, it would seem advisable to conduct at least one individual critique session prior to a small group technique. (p. 37)

He further suggested,

> Observations seem to offer support for the practice of requiring counselors to review the audiotape of a counseling session prior to a videotape of the same session. (p. 37)

Several observations can be made about the use of audio and video technology in the preservice training of counselors.

1. Counselor education is in a stage of experimentation in the production and use of models and in the use of technology in the feedback process. Counselor educators would be wise to consult experts in communication and television for their assistance.

2. Research has focused on the development of basic skills and has not examined intermediate or advanced skills. Counselor educators must undertake the difficult task of specifying these higher levels skills and begin to develop training methods which will effectively transmit these skills to students.

3. Technology has helped counselor educators to train students not only more systematically but also more quickly and efficiently, leaving more program time for courses or supervised field work. However, students need to develop more than a repertoire of techniques. To be effective in stressful work environments, they also need to develop coping skills. Toward this goal counselor educators are utilizing personal growth experiences and various types of supervision. These are discussed in the next sections.

Personal Growth Experiences

For over a decade counselor educators have attempted to assist counselors in training to integrate the application of skills with their personalities. Banikotes (1975), for example, points out a significant shift in emphasis in counselor training programs to

"the relationship between counselors' personal characteristics and professional counselor functioning" (p. 149).

Research indicates that the use of a group experience can bring about changes in characteristics such as personality and self-recognition (Apostal & Muro, 1970), personality (Gazda & Ohlsen, 1961), role-behavior (Gazda & Bonney, 1965), and self-understanding (McKinnon, 1969). Groups are also useful in helping counselors to relate more effectively with their professors (Reddy, 1970) and with each other (Banikotes, 1975). However, Blocher and Wolleat (1972) have criticized counselor training for its failure to produce changes in students' attitudes that are lasting or have any effect on their actual counseling performance.

The type of group appears to be a critical factor in the amount of growth that occurs. Over the past few years there has been a shift from unstructured toward more structured group training experiences. Recent research (Cormier, et al., 1974; Levin & Kurtz, 1974; and Gormally, 1975) suggests that goals usually desired in personal growth groups are attained to a greater extent when groups are structured rather than unstructured. This finding is in agreement with the formulations of Bednar, Melnick, and Kaul (1974) who consider the degree of structure in the group, along with the amount of risk and responsibility, to be key components in the achievement of personal growth. Other researchers (Ivey, 1976; Authier, et al., 1975) go further and suggest that students should be trained in a psychoeducation model which embodies the preventative concept of

"training as treatment." Students in such groups receive structured interpersonal skill-training. Sometimes the training focuses on a particular counseling theory, e.g., Gestalt awareness training, as done by Harman (1975) at the University of Kentucky.

Another trend in personal growth experiences is the *blending of didactic and experiential learning within a traditionally didactic course*. Tate (1973), for example, uses this approach at Indiana State University. As this author says, "The group setting provides members opportunities to learn and practice facilitative behavior while achieving increased self-understanding and self-congruence" (p. 69). Perhaps the increased use of experiential learning techniques such as role-playing, plus out-of-class activities such as field trips, interviews, and observations, will help to produce the personal changes in students that counselor educators desire.

Counselor training programs in the last five to seven years have given major emphasis to systematic skill-training. However, some distress has arisen about the long-term effects of programs highly oriented toward skills. Mahon and Altmann (1977) point out the lack of long-term effects of skill-training and emphasize the need for a "self as instrument" concept based on perceptual psychology, also described by Combs, Richards, and Richards (1976). As Mahon and Altmann summarize,

> Perceptual psychology does not deny the importance of skills or techniques--rather it adds to them. It adds the integrating basis from which skills emerge. It is not the skills themselves which

> are all important, it is the control of their use, the intentions with which they are used, and their flexibility or changeability that is so crucial. (p. 48)

Supervision

One widely recommended method of integrating skill development and personal growth is the creative use of supervision. In this section supervision is defined as a highly personal and focused learning situation in which a skilled practitioner helps a novice to integrate and apply previously learned counseling skills. Supervision is one of several components of the broader term of training. Although supervision is recognized as a vital part of a training program, very little knowledge exists about the processes of supervision or the factors that contribute to successful supervision. For a further discussion of definitions and the historical foundations of supervision readers should consult Kadushin (1976); Brammer and Wassner (1977); Kaslow and Associates (1977); Kurpius, Baker and Thomas (1977).

Individual approach. Individual supervision typically has received far more attention than other forms such as group supervision. One factor affecting all kinds of supervision is the level of counseling skills of the supervisor which, according to the principles of modeling, are of such importance in the development of a student's counseling skills. Evidence suggests that students demonstrate a higher level of facilitative skills with supervisors who themselves possess high-level skills than with supervisors of

lesser ability (Payne & Gralinski, 1968; Pierce & Schauble, 1970 and 1971). Of course, an alternative explanation for this finding is that the emotional support students find in the supervisory relationship decreases their anxiety and enables them to perform the skills with more freedom.

Effective supervision is similar to effective counseling in that both are based on the supervisor's level of facilitative conditions. Several researchers (Ekstein & Wallerstein, 1972; Doehrman, 1976; Abroms, 1977; and Melchiode, 1977) have described the similarities and differences between supervision and counseling. The differences, however, are not as clear as the similarities. To clarify the relationship between supervision and counseling through an empirical approach, both processes should be considered in terms of needs of the student, length of time, goals of the sessions, level of counseling skills of the student, and characteristics of the client being seen by the student. Also of importance is the model of supervision used by the supervisor which dictates the supervisor's approach, role, and techniques (Hart, 1978; Hart, in press-b).

One of three proposed models of supervision is called the *personal growth* (Hart, et al., 1976a, 1976b, 1976c) *or therapeutic model* (Kurpius & Baker, 1977; Boyd, 1978). In this model the supervisor focuses on the attitudes and feelings of the student in order to help the student attain goals such as greater maturity, increased self-actualization, and more self-confidence and self-

awareness in interpersonal relations. The supervisor acts as helper and the student as helpee, which establishes a clearly hierarchical relationship between them. Rather than take the stance that the student has a specific problem, the supervisor assists the student to strengthen existing weaknesses that might affect a counseling relationship. The supervisor helps the student to identify and resolve difficulties in his/her life, but makes little attempt to relate the resolution of the difficulties to the student's work with clients. The assumption is that if a student becomes more fully functioning in attitudes, feelings, and behavior, then he/she will become a more fully-functioning and effective counselor, and that the effects of personal development will generalize to current and future counseling relationships.

Another model which is often used in fields such as social work (Vargas, 1977), medicine (Kutzik, 1977), psychiatry (Kagan & Werner, 1977), and education (Smith, 1977) is the *teaching* (Kurpius & Baker, 1977) *or didactic model* (Hart, et al., 1976a, 1976b, 1976c). The supervisor takes the role of expert teacher (Gitterman & Miller, 1977) and the student that of novice learner, thus establishing a hierarchical relationship, as in the personal growth model. The supervisor instructs and critiques the student in the learning of specific skills and/or explains the dynamics present in the student's current client relationships. The focus is on skills and the specific application of those skills, and/or on conceptualizing the behavior of clients.

A third model of supervision is the *consultative model* (Hart, et al., 1976a, 1976b, 1976c; Kurpius & Baker, 1977) which integrates some elements of both the personal growth and didactic models. The supervisor gives attention to the attitudes and feelings of the student, specifically in regard to a particular client. The goal is to help the student to understand, clarify, and improve the counseling relationship. Much less hierarchy exists in this type of supervisory relationship than in either the personal growth or didactic models. The term "consultative" is used because of the similarity between this kind of relationship and that which exists in consultation. Although research has been conducted on didactic and experiential approaches to supervision (Smith, 1975; Newton, 1976; Wilbur, 1975), no attempt has yet been made to compare the three models. For a more complete description of the models of supervision readers may consult Hart (1976a, 1976b, 1976c, 1976d, 1976e).

Group approach. Group supervision is now being used in many counselor training programs (Tucker, et al., 1976). The case conference (used so often in medical settings), the problem-centered discussion, the skill practice session, and the personal sharing of attitudes and feelings are all forms of group supervision. The three models described in the previous section may apply to group supervision as well as to individual supervision, but this should be tested empirically. Group supervision could focus on case conceptualization, skill development, personal growth, or consultation,

and could be used with individual, group, or family counseling.

Comparing group and individual supervision is similar to comparing group and individual counseling. Group supervision provides the opportunity to develop a strong support system of peers for each group member and increases the potential for creative suggestions. Of course, the group supervisor must possess expertise as a group leader. Furthermore, individual attention in the group format is necessarily less than in the individual approach. However, as Abels states,

> Group supervision is just one aspect of that broad area of supervision, but its emphasis on the use of the group as a medium for bringing about consequential change in people's lives brings it closer to the natural way in which people change and grow. (Abels, 1977, p. 176)

The use of individual or group supervision alone may not produce the desired results. There is no evidence to indicate whether the group or individual approach is more effective or the kind of student who will benefit the most from either. *The development of a comprehensive training program could include both individual and group supervision for students.* This combination would probably provide a more powerful training experience than if either approach was used exclusively. Since the group approach is a major part of most inservice training programs, it will be described in more detail in the section on inservice training.

Peer approach. Recently some study has been made of what is called peer supervision (Seligman, 1978; Wagner & Smith, 1978).

Since supervision has traditionally been viewed as occurring between an expert and a less experienced person, a more appropriate label would probably be peer evaluation or trainee consultation. Writers like Hare and Frankena (1972) have pointed out the value of having peers critique each other's work, offer emotional support to each other, and give each other concrete suggestions regarding clients. The most obvious advantage of the peer approach is that it eliminates the threat of evaluation from a faculty or work supervisor. No designated authority figure is present, and evaluation is alternated between peers. Peer supervision has the potential of freeing university or job supervisors for other tasks, and it could serve as a valuable supplement to individual or group supervision.

Temporal application of supervision. Innovations have also occurred in terms of when supervision takes place. Traditionally, students have met with supervisors several days after their counseling sessions on a one-session-per-week basis. This is termed *delayed supervision* (Liddle, 1977). This delay can be advantageous for students who use the time for reflection and planning or who need time for any anxiety about the counseling session to decline. A disadvantage of the delayed approach is that the feedback has less effect because it occurs so long after the counseling session.

One way of increasing the impact of supervision is to use *immediate supervision* (Liddle, 1977), supervision which takes place on the same day as the counseling session or even a few minutes

after the session. The counseling session is fresh in the mind of the student, and interventions by the supervisor thus have greater impact. Sometimes the supervisor observes the counseling session through a one-way mirror or on closed-circuit television and develops an agenda of suggestions to be used during the supervision session.

One disadvantage of the immediate supervision approach is that the feedback generally focuses on behaviors displayed in one counseling session with one particular client. Little opportunity exists for comparison with the student's other counseling sessions during the week. This perhaps neglects the intellectual integration by the student which can lead to professional growth; the process of deducing principles of effective counseling behavior is left to the student. Furthermore, students may resist the immediate approach if the supervisor's suggestion for behavior change is difficult for the student to implement. The immediate approach is a mid-way point between delayed and live supervision.

Live supervision (Montalvo, 1973; Minuchin, 1974; Birchler, 1975; and Liddle, 1977, 1978) occurs when the supervisor works with a student in an actual counseling session. This can take the form of co-counseling, which has been especially popular in the training of group counselors (Coche, 1977). Live supervision also takes place when a supervisor observes a counseling session through a one-way mirror or a television system and makes interventions to the student during the counseling session. The supervisor can make

interventions by speaking to the student through a bug-in-the-ear (Boylston & Tuma, 1972), by calling into the session on a telephone, by asking the student to leave the room for discussion outside, or by other methods agreed upon by supervisor and student. Live supervision has the most potential for immediate feedback by the supervisor and behavior change on the part of the student. However, little time is available for thoughtful integration or for application of the behavior to other clients.

Experimentation is needed to discover the most effective combinations of supervisory approaches. Live supervision with its potential for change could be combined with delayed supervision which allows for integration to take place. Perhaps live supervision could use the didactic model and delayed supervision could use the personal growth or consultative model. Several combinations of models, approaches, and techniques are being implemented through a Community Counseling Clinic developed at Temple University (Liddle & Smith, 1977, 1978). A number of specific techniques exist that can be used to enhance the supervisory process within any of the models described. For a more complete discussion of techniques readers are referred to The Process of Clinical Supervision (Hart, in press-b).

Effective supervision requires that both supervisor and student be psychologically secure enough to examine their relationship. Just as students study their relationship with clients, so must

students and supervisors take time to study their relationship. Mueller and Kell (1972) believe that what happens in supervision sessions has direct impact on what happens in student counseling sessions, a belief that has been validated by Doehrman (1976). Supervision is currently undergoing thorough examination as counselor educators continue to strive for excellence in the pre-service training of counselors.

Speculations and Recommendations for the Future

What does the future hold for competent, well-trained counselors? Can counselors survive critical examination by the public and competition from other professionals in the social sciences? What can counselor educators do to help their graduates gain and maintain employment? This section presents some alternative ways of modifying counselor education programs to meet the demands of a competitive job market and a critical client population. The suggestions deal with both structural and philosophical changes in present methods of counselor education.

Structural Changes

In July, 1978, the Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) implemented a system for approving counselor training programs. This system will use the "ACES Standards for

the Preparation of Counselors and Other Personnel Services Specialists" (1977) as criteria for evaluating programs. The recommendations made here are in agreement with the ACES standards.

The most striking fact revealed in a study by Jones (1976), and the one with the most serious implications for counselor training programs, is that 2.4 counselors are being trained for every available counselor opening. As a result, many universities are experiencing a decline in the number of applicants for counselor training, especially for training as school counselors. Furthermore, applicants have changed from those who intend to seek employment as school or agency counselors to those who wish to enhance their interpersonal skills as teachers or other human service workers, or who wish to work in private practice. With this new kind of applicant, in what ways should a program be modified?

1. Increase the percentage of admissions for applicants who desire to work in a community agency. This change will require that faculty have the expertise to train counselors in the skills needed for agency settings and to make the corresponding curriculum revisions.

A speculation is that the number of people seeking training as school counselors will decline rapidly and the number of people seeking training as agency counselors will increase.

2. Seek out new populations at the undergraduate level. Part of the motivation to give training at the undergraduate

level is economic in that undergraduate students outnumber those at the graduate level. Counselor educators also offer undergraduate courses in order to advertise their master's program and to screen likely prospects into it. Some universities, such as Purdue, offer general courses in skills-training to undergraduate students. Counselor educators also offer courses that introduce students to social service careers or aid students in career planning.

A speculation is that the number of undergraduate courses will increase rapidly. Furthermore, these courses eventually will be targeted at special undergraduate populations, such as nonmatriculated students seeking continuing education, students with problems of career choice, and older women initially entering or returning to college.

3. Seek out new populations at the post-master's degree level. The growth of private training institutes and offerings by professional organizations would indicate that persons at all degree levels are interested in additional education following their formal training period. Therefore, colleges and universities need to develop a variety of degree and nondegree courses, workshops, and minicourses to meet the needs of these various populations. Some post-degree experiences may have to be offered evenings or weekends. New courses and adjunct faculty may be required. The post-master's degree person may seek the Certificate of Advanced Graduate Studies (CAGS) or the Educational Specialist (Ed.S.)

degree. Other individuals may work to earn Continuing Education Units (National Task Force on the Continuing Education Unit, 1974).

A general prediction is that universities will move slowly into servicing these populations within the next decade. Some activities of universities toward this end will be described in the Inservice Training part of this monograph.

4. Combine counselor training programs with other types of educational efforts to form a community psychology or human service training program. Although training models have been developed, the movement toward integration across departments and colleges is slow. Economic pressures on individual departments force them into a very conservative and protective position. One example of cooperation is the Washington University in St. Louis program which combines counseling and social work. A speculation is that economic cutbacks in universities will result in a combining of programs by administrative dictate. Various departments will initiate collaborative relations to build on each other's strengths with the positive by-product of reduced competitiveness.

5. Develop specific training programs in specialty areas which meet the requirements of state licensure laws.

One prediction arising from the pressure to meet licensing board standards is that specific training programs will be developed in those areas where a licensure law exists. For example,

master's degree programs have been developed in marriage and family counseling. Other current specialty programs include alcoholism counseling and gerontology at St. Mary's University in San Antonio, Texas; counseling in the corrections system at Memphis State University; counseling minority groups at State University College in Brockport, New York; counseling the deaf at Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C. (Johnson & Tully, 1974); and counseling drug abusers (Shettel and Carella, 1976). In addition, the pressure to meet licensure requirements will motivate many people, even those who already possess a degree, to enter a specialty program.

What may emerge is the development of some programs that are general in nature and others that are highly specialized. Faculty in generic programs would teach the fundamentals which all counselors should have, and leave specialty training to the post-master's program. On the other hand, faculty in a specialty program would concentrate on courses with a highly specific focus.

A speculation is that specialty programs eventually will require a master's degree from a generic program for admission and will award another master's degree, CAGS or Ed.S. degree, at the conclusion.

6. Establish short- and long-term goals for programs through regularly scheduled planning sessions. Structural changes in counselor training programs are frequently initiated without consideration of long-range goals. A recommendation is to have

faculty within each counselor education department spend at least one day each year discussing the future of the department, including the issues raised in this report, and developing a 1-year plan and a 5-year plan for the department.

7. Have professional organizations such as the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA) sponsor programs and discussions in which counselor educators share their ideas and plans for the future of their departments. Very frequently attention is given to the specific components of a program with no examination of the direction of the program. By sponsoring panel presentations and group discussions a professional organization could help its members prepare for the future. A professional organization could provide the additional service of sponsoring joint programs to which several professional organizations could be invited. In this way, counselor educators and other professionals could share their opinions and explore the possibilities of cooperative rather than competitive programs for mutual benefit.

Philosophical and Curricular Changes

1. Consider how the developmental counseling philosophy of school counselor training programs can be utilized as a basis for the new programs for training agency counselors. The existing focus in training programs on counseling for developmental or actualizing purposes will be in opposition to the demands by agencies for counselors who see counseling as remedial, rehabilitative, or

adjustive. Whether or not the developmental philosophy can be or should be used in training agency counselors remains to be decided. Appropriate roles for counselors versus appropriate roles for psychologists is an example of the type of issue that needs clarification.

A prediction is that those programs maintaining a developmental philosophy will become increasingly distinct from other training programs. Most programs will adopt a more remedial philosophy and become quite similar to existing training programs in clinical psychology and psychiatric social work.

2. Expand the systematic skill-training emphasis beyond basic skills to intermediate and advanced skills. The field is ready for a description of intermediate and advanced counseling skills in behavioral terms, even though these skills are difficult to describe. Once identified, however, these skills can be taught as effectively as beginning skills. Throughout the skill-training, educators should keep in mind that students need assistance in learning to use skills in ways that are natural and comfortable for them and their clients.

3. Increase the program components of field work and the use of audio-visual technology. Programs which presently do not use videotape for training should begin to do so. Programs that provide little practical experience with clients need to add more hours in field work or internship.

4. Try new forms of supervision and seek to develop skills of self-examination and peer evaluation in students. Counselors need to be able to evaluate their efforts, modify their behavior, and gain support from their colleagues in dealing with the pressures of work. If students can be helped through supervision to develop independence, flexibility, and coping mechanisms, then perhaps they will function more effectively when on the job. Through supervision, students can be helped to integrate the specific skills of counseling with their personal style of interpersonal relationships--a process which has not been systematically accomplished in most training programs. As supervisors experiment with new approaches, it may be predicted that supervision will become the target of increased research and development efforts in the years to come.

Section III

INSERVICE TRAINING

Professionals entering the work force as counselors during the last decade have discovered that they are unprepared for the next. How counselors may acquire new skills and knowledge on the job to meet the demands of their clients and employers is discussed in this section.

Purposes and Definition

Any inservice program for counselors must be examined in light of rising criticism of the effectiveness of counselors in schools and agencies alike. Traditionally, inservice training has derived from the deficiency notion that counselors lack certain skills upon completion of their formal training and therefore need to acquire them on the job (Hannaford, 1978). A further concept of inservice work (also a deficiency notion) is that because local conditions change, counselors need additional knowledge and skills to accomplish required tasks. For counselors to accept these ideas as the only bases for inservice training is to adopt an apologetic and defensive posture that will eventually lead to their elimination from the educational scene.

Howey (1976) described six goals for inservice training. His conception extends the basis for provision of inservice training far beyond simple deficiency notions. As stated by Howey the purposes of inservice education are:

1. to help staff make the transition from general training to specific application of that training--"transitional";

2. to assist staff to deal with frequently occurring situations or problems--"job-specific";

3. to aid staff in adjusting to a new job definition caused by a shift in societal or community needs--"system-related";

4. to have staff keep up-to-date on general professional issues with no demand for immediate or direct application--"general professional development";

5. to help staff to acquire new responsibilities or roles--"career progression";

6. to encourage staff to understand and enhance themselves as persons within their professional role ----"personal development" (pp. 23-24).

This comprehensive list implies that inservice training is needed throughout a person's career. If human service professionals could agree in principle on the six areas listed by Howey, then a number of practical issues could be addressed regarding the implementation of any inservice training. The purposes set forth by Howey are valuable in terms of content, but what form should the inservice training take? Questions needing to be answered are:

1. Should an appropriate definition include formal college courses as well as attendance at meetings of professional organizations (which are typically less academically rigorous than college courses)?

2. Should self-directed or independent study be accepted?

3. Should activities which lead to a degree or certification be equated with nondegree or noncertification activities? Professionals in all human services must come to consensus about a definition for inservice education.

The American Medical Association (AMA) has developed one model of inservice training which outlines levels of acceptable activities. A physician who achieves 150 hours of inservice education according to the amounts specified per level receives the Physicians Recognition Award. The levels and their maximum amounts of time are:

1. continuing education activities with accredited sponsorship (by AMA)--60 hours minimum, no maximum;

2. continuing education activities with nonaccredited sponsorship--45 hours;

3. medical teaching--45 hours;

4. papers, publications, books, and exhibits--40 hours;

5. nonsupervised individual continuing education activities--45 hours;

6. other meritorious learning experiences--45 hours (AMA, 1976).

This categorization system has been adopted in modified form by other professional groups such as the American Association of Marriage and Family Counselors (Shalett, 1977) and the National Association of School Psychologists (Walker, 1977). For a more extensive view of professional organizations and their role, readers may consult Hart (in press-a). Whether other professional groups will

adopt a model similar to that develped by the AMA remains to be seen.

Governance

Governance refers to the many groups that are currently providing inservice activities. Hollis and Wantz (1977) reported that three-fourths of the 417 counselor education departments who responded to their national survey conducted at least one inservice activity for their graduates. Activities included speakers, skill-development clinics, workshops, and conferences.

In their review of the activities of guidance and counseling divisions of state departments of education, these same authors found that inservice training is the second most frequent service. Career and life planning is the most common emphasis in training, followed by "legalities" (licensure, Buckley amendment, funding, and pending legislation), and activities designed to increase competence. Other areas, in declining order of frequency, are ethics and professional responsibility, record keeping and report writing, supervision and/or training of paraprofessionals and peer counselors, and crisis intervention training. Hollis and Wantz concluded that, "State Department staffs are taking a leadership role in keeping counselors and others abreast with changes applicable to counseling and guidance" (p. 464).

Hollis and Wantz also collected data from 115 of the 160 school districts in the United States which serve areas of over 100,000 people. Among other questions, school district departments

of guidance and counseling were asked to check from a list of eight inservice programs those which had been offered to counselors in the last three years. The programs receiving the most responses were career and life planning (85.6%), skill development (78.8%), legalities (74%), and needs assessment training (57.7%). The other programs in declining order of frequency were crisis intervention training, record keeping and/or report writing, ethics and professional responsibility, and supervision and/or training of paraprofessionals and peer counselors. Apparently, school districts are also active in providing inservice activities for counselors.

In many states, school counselors need inservice training for recertification by the state, rehabilitation counselors need it for recertification by their professional organizations, while other counselors require it to maintain their membership in some professional organizations. This situation leads to many questions:

1. Does unnecessary overlap exist in the inservice activities sponsored by professional organizations, state departments, and local school districts?

2. Are there gaps or areas which are being overlooked?

3. To what extent do collaboration and mutual efforts at providing activities exist?

4. Are participating groups doing any long-range planning?

Information on which to base answers to these questions is generally absent. However, there are some data to suggest that there is rel-

atively little cooperation, coordination, or long-range planning among the groups offering inservice activities (National Council of States on Inservice Education, 1976). In fact, competition may exist among groups providing inservice training. If training is to be truly effective and of high quality, then cooperation among sponsoring groups is necessary. Collaboration, although difficult to establish, may also become imperative because of economic factors.

Financial Support

A key point frequently ignored in the plans for delivering inservice education is *the financing of inservice activities.* Critical questions include:

1. What responsibility, if any, do Federal, state, or local governments have in insuring the continuing effectiveness of public school and agency counselors?

2. What portion of the economic burden for inservice activities should be borne by counselors themselves?

Perhaps the answers to these questions depend upon which of Howey's six areas of inservice education are under consideration. Clearly, in a sluggish economy with declining funds for education and social services, money for inservice education has been and will continue to diminish. This factor more than any other will limit the amount of inservice education that can be offered by any group. *At the NCSIE conference (NCSIE, 1976) it was proposed that every state allocate 2.5% of its total educational budget for inservice*

education and increase the amount by 1% per year up to 10% per year. Without collaboration by local, state, and national leaders who are willing to promote specific funding for inservice education, the responsibility eventually will fall on the individual counselor.

Evaluation

A final issue to be mentioned is *evaluation.* Who or what should be evaluated--individual participants, clients, or programs in general? McDonald (1976) believes that evaluation of inservice training should be based on the degree to which a participant behaves differently with his/her clients, and also on how clients respond to this new behavior. Obviously, McDonald has taken a very narrow view of inservice education compared with Howey's broad goal statement. However, in this day of accountability, counselors may need to provide the type of data McDonald suggests if inservice education activities are to continue. If so, then they must devise an evaluation scheme before initiating any inservice activity that is based on valid research methodology. Consultation with an expert in evaluation design would thus become imperative.

Approaches

During the last few years counselor educators have underwritten the need to provide new and updated information to counselors through inservice training (Aspy, 1972). As a result of the Jones (1975) survey, Moracco (1977) advocated that counselor education departments shift their major emphasis from preservice to inservice

training to meet the needs of school or agency counselors in the field. Perhaps a review of effective approaches will be helpful to readers who are presently designing inservice programs.

Use of Staff Personnel

One approach to inservice training is to use staff personnel. A common method is to conduct a *staff conference at least once a month* to discuss topics of interest. At the conference a designated staff member could report on or demonstrate a new technique or discuss assigned readings. Films, audiotapes or videotapes could also be rented and used at these conferences. With a staff that possesses a high level of interpersonal trust, the conference could also be used as a *critique session* of a taped counseling session conducted by one of the staff members.

The critique session staff conference is similar to the *case conference*, which has been used in social work, medicine, and clinical psychology for many years. In the traditional case conference, a staff member describes a particular case on which he/she has been working. Other staff members listen to the presentation, sometimes examining test results or other information, and then ask questions or offer reactions. The case conference focuses primarily on conceptualization of client behaviors or problems, secondarily on counselor approach, and little on specific counselor technique. Conceptualization is necessary before the most effective approach or technique can be determined; however, exclusive emphasis on the conceptual may not be as helpful to staff members as examination

of actual counselor behaviors on audio- or videotape.

One way to reduce the natural stage fright of a staff member and to maximize the effectiveness of either of these types of conferences is to develop *two-person teams* for making presentations. The emotional support of a team member can reduce anxiety, and the learning which takes place during the planning sessions can be highly valuable.

Use of Outside Consultants

In many cases counselors need skills and knowledge which only an outside consultant can provide. Usually the consultant is from another school or agency, a university, or the state department. Prior to obtaining a consultant, it is essential to assess carefully the needs of the staff. For maximum effectiveness a *needs assessment* should be conducted in three stages.

1. The school or agency director should determine informally with the staff that they require additional skills or knowledge.

2. Every member of the staff should participate in a written needs assessment.

3. The director should review the results with the staff and with their aid make plans for the visit of a consultant. Actually, the needs assessment and resulting discussion will help both the director and staff to decide which needs can be met within the staff, which will require the services of an outside consultant, and which can only be met by attendance at programs outside

the work setting.

Quite often a consultant has a powerful but short-lived effect on a staff. Often the consultant will spend several hours with the staff but will never find out whether the staff benefitted from the presentation. *One way to maximize the effectiveness of a consultant is to conduct several short training sessions spaced over a period of months.* The consultant could outline and describe the topic in the first session, and then return with additional information and check on staff progress during succeeding sessions. In the closing sessions the consultant could offer additional refinements and summative evaluations of staff. This procedure provides for ongoing evaluation and offers greater probability that staff will use the information and materials presented by the consultant.

Use of Experiences Outside the School or Agency

Although the use of existing staff and consultants tailors the inservice training to the particular needs of a school or agency, these approaches have some limitations. Any staff can become too narrow in its collective viewpoint when contact with outside professionals is curtailed. One way of gaining knowledge, skills, and a broad point of view is to participate in inservice training activities conducted outside a particular agency. One of the most common experiences is *participation in local, state, or national meetings of professional organizations* at which professionals from many areas make presentations. Unfortunately, the quality of these meetings

is quite variable, and the format is usually lecture or lecture-discussion, which has minimal effectiveness.

Other outside experiences are designed to help participants develop competencies in a particular area. Such experiences include *preconference workshops* at meetings of professional organizations; *workshops* conducted by private training institutes, clinics, hospitals, or universities; and *university courses*. These experiences vary in length from a day, or several days, to several hours per week throughout a semester. The usual workshop format encompasses both demonstration and application, which allows participants to observe as well as practice specific skills, thereby enhancing carry-over to their work settings.

Awards for many of these experiences consist of certificates, Continuing Education Units (National Task Force on the Continuing Education Unit, 1974), or graduate credits leading to an Educational Specialist (Ed.S.) degree or a Certificate of Advanced Graduate Studies (CAGS). Any of these awards may be useful in certificate or license renewal. These workshop or competence-building experiences probably form the largest number of inservice training activities.

One additional approach to inservice training is a *visit to another setting*. The staff could arrange a visit to observe, discuss, and share information at some nearby school or agency which was well-known for its work in a particular area. Often a reciprocal arrangement is established whereby staffs of various schools or agencies

visit each other. For example, school districts often sponsor a day in which counselors visit their colleagues. These experiences broaden the perspective of staff members and can have major impact on the planning for the school or agency operation.

Summary

Before choosing a specific type of inservice training, the director and staff must determine staff needs; choose experiences that, in their judgment, will meet the needs most effectively; and allocate necessary funds. Staff conferences are inexpensive and easy to schedule, and can lead to improved staff morale. Within agencies staff conferences are sometimes difficult to initiate due to lack of group cohesiveness and the absence of a spirit of openness and cooperation. Outside consultants usually provoke little threat to staff unless the staff members fear that they will be evaluated. They provide a fresh viewpoint, but they usually do not thoroughly understand the agency or school operation. And they are expensive, a fact which must be taken into consideration when planning the inservice experiences.

Workshops allow for observation as well as skill-building, but they are relatively expensive. The funds used to send ten staff members to different workshops at a cost of $30 per person might be better spent on hiring a consultant for a day or two, which could then benefit the entire staff. Also, when individual staff members participate in different experiences outside the agency, they gain

skills or knowledge as individuals, which may not be of benefit to the school or agency as a whole.

Whatever plans are made for inservice training, it is essential that the director and the staff decide on the needs of the staff--whether, for example, staff members need to enhance managerial skills useful in program planning, managing, organizing, and budgeting, or clinical skills required in counseling and consultation. Decisions concerning the format of the inservice training are relatively easy once there is clear understanding as to the staff's needs.

Effective Programs

Workshops are the most frequently used form of inservice training. This section describes effective workshop programs for the development of both managerial and clinical skills.

Some general statements about workshops should be made at the outset of this discussion. George (1974) observed that counselors become highly motivated to participate in workshops when they have been involved in the workshop planning. Using well-known speakers also increases counselor motivation. Resistance to the inservice program per se or to the specific content of the program on the part of counselors is inevitable and must be managed. George suggests that open discussion of the negative attitudes can be advantageous. Asking participants who have previously used the workshop techniques to tell of their success can also be of great help in motivating counselors who have reservations about participating in the training.

George also emphasizes the establishment of specific objectives which can be clearly assessed at the conclusion of the workshop.

Some workshops are designed around a specific focus. For example, the University of Missouri at St. Louis conducted a workshop for area counselors who desired to learn behavioral counseling techniques (George, 1974). In this 1-day workshop small groups worked on three different techniques, rotating after an allotted time. By increasing the time period, the goals of a workshop can be broadened. Schwartz and Sherman (1975) described a 4-day *action counseling workshop* designed to increase the extent and quality of group counseling in the schools where the workshop participants worked. The workshop was presented in six phases:

1. An awareness session to increase motivation and reduce emotional barriers to learning.
2. Goal-setting and strategy formulation.
3. Simulated practice plus feedback.
4. Skill practice in mini-groups with real clients, plus feedback.
5. Integration of learning via small group discussions, and planning of group counseling activities to be used in the participants' work settings.
6. A brief follow-up session six months following the workshop.

As the authors reported, four to seven days covering 65 to 80 hours can produce powerful results. Selfridge and others (1975) found

that a basic 16-hour skill-building inservice workshop plus eight hours of sensitivity training was more effective in terms of skill-acquisition than a basic workshop plus eight hours of traditional didactic training. When time and money are available, this format is excellent.

If a less concentrated format is desired, then the workshop designed by Doverspike (1972) might be useful. Doverspike described *three workshops offered three months apart with two phases per workshop.* The unique feature of this phased workshop format is that it responds to the different needs of beginning counselors (1 to 3 years of experience) and of "continuing counselors" (more than 3 years of experience).

Workshop I

Phase 1 - Beginning counselors integrate their academic training and their real life experiences.

Phase 2 - Continuing counselors participate as members in a group counseling experience for motivation and cohesiveness-building.

Workshop II

Phase 3 - Beginning and continuing counselors are critiqued in their individual counseling skills and are instructed in new skills.

Phase 4 - The focus is on group counseling skills--critique and instruction.

Workshop III

Phase 5 - Beginning counselors attend a seminar on the interdisciplinary influences on counseling from psychology, sociology, and cultural anthropology.

Phase 6 - Continuing counselors attend a seminar on current issues in counseling.

Doverspike suggests that the same group of participants be enrolled for all three workshops, and that the number be limited to 24. Workshops should be held, when possible, at the participants' work setting, and participants should receive graduate university credit.

The model described by Pulvino and Perrone (1973) spaced the inservice training over a *3-year period*. The workshop was held during the summer all day, five days per week, for four weeks. The entire program was designed to continue for three summers, although the workshops were not sequential and persons could attend any or all of them. The program was conducted by the Department of Counseling and Guidance at the University of Wisconsin at Madison, which awarded graduate credit to participants. Some of the strengths of this program were that time was concentrated, a needs assessment of eligible participants determined the workshop content, and evaluation was conducted at the conclusion of each workshop. This type of program is perhaps the least difficult for counselor education departments to implement and is used frequently; yet, the cost to the participants in time and money would exclude all but the most highly motivated.

Other highly motivated counselors may wish to take part in the *extern program* described by Lundquist, Bergland, and Marzano (1977).

The authors have designed an inservice program to be conducted for one weekend (noon Saturday to noon Sunday) per month for nine months. Specific topics are chosen from those desired by the participants, and graduate credit is awarded to those who complete the program. Eight phases are listed, in brief, to show what each weekend session is like. The phases are:

1. didactic input;
2. synthesis and discussion of didactic input in small groups;
3. problem-solving in small groups;
4. large group problem-solving;
5. didactic input;
6. synthesis and discussion of didactic input in small groups;
7. didactic input from other fields of the behavioral sciences; and
8. synthesis and discussion of didactic input.

The authors state that holding the meetings on weekends promotes group cohesiveness and concentration on the task. A strong point of the design is that participants can be evaluated continually throughout the program. Lundquist and associates realize that the time and the personal expense may be prohibitive for many counselors, but they believe that the format itself is sound.

Most economical, in terms of counselor time and expense, are *prepackaged or programmed learning materials*, and they appear to be effective. For example, Hart (1973) found that students who completed

written exercises individually in their own homes performed more effectively in simulated counseling sessions than those who had not. Cormier and Cormier (1976) provide further support for the use of packaged training materials.

A very sophisticated package of individual learning materials consisting of *readings and audiotapes* was prepared by Dickerson and Roberts (1974) for rehabilitation counselors. These materials are available from the Department of Rehabilitation and Manpower Services, Materials Development Center, Stout State University, Menomonie, Wisconsin. Dickerson and Roberts developed 30 learning units which were used by 136 counselors over a 1-year period. They compared the performance of these 136 counselors with that of 69 counselors who served as controls. On 17 of the 30 units, test results indicated that counselors who received the training scored significantly higher than those who did not. On the negative side, however, Dickerson and Roberts found that "Over 26 percent of the 136 treatment counselors failed to take any of the learning units and only one learning unit was taken by as many as 51 counselors, suggesting that counselor motivation for participation in this particular venture was not high" (p. 137). They speak candidly about counselor and supervisor resistance to these projects and discuss the use of voluntary and mandatory inservice programs.

Other successful *materials for inservice training* have been developed by Jones and Dayton (1977). Results of their work may be

obtained by contacting the Publication Office of the American Institutes for Research (AIR), P. O. Box 1113, Palo Alto, California, 94302. Closely related to prepackaged or programmed materials are resources which are competency-based. McBain (1976) has compiled a catalog of 34 *competency-based staff development programs*, also available from AIR. An updated version of this catalog will be ready in March, 1979.

Hannaford (1978) describes an inservice program in Gwinnett County School District, Lawrenceville, Georgia, which utilizes a *combination of many approaches*. In this comprehensive program she conducted a needs assessment, has involved counselors in all aspects of planning, and evaluates program outcomes. Counselors participating in the program attend meetings of professional organizations and monthly local workshops, develop guidance materials for their district, and conduct a miniconvention for local human service workers. They also attend staff meetings twice a month to share reactions and discuss plans and ideas. Obviously, a dedication to inservice training has caused an effective program to be established and maintained. Other research supports the value and effectiveness of using a variety of formats for inservice education (Clark & McGloshen, 1975; Resnikoff, 1976).

Speculations and Recommendations for the Future

Positive Attitude

The first and most important recommendation for program developers is to attempt to *develop a positive attitude* among counselors,

supervisors, and administrators toward inservice education. Inservice education must be viewed as responding to all of the six purposes stated by Howey--not solely for the enhancement or development of skills. Inservice education takes time, and time is money. Counselors engaged in inservice activities are not seeing clients or making job placements, which many counselors and directors believe to be their only important duties. If counselors, supervisors, and administrators can be shown that inservice education serves a variety of purposes and can have positive impact on their effectiveness and productivity, then the likelihood is increased that they will be committed to its implementation.

Involvement

Counselors must be involved from the beginning in making specific plans. They should represent a major component of the committee that plans, coordinates, implements, and evaluates all inservice activities in which they will participate. Their involvement will encourage commitment to the activities and responsibility for actively seeking ways to meet their needs.

Needs Survey

Once a degree of commitment and involvement has been established, the staff should *survey their needs* according to Howey's six goals for inservice education. The survey should allow for different needs according to previous training and experience, length of time in the profession and in the specific school or agency, and professional

and personal goals.

Variety of Formats

The planning committee should *use a variety of formats:* staff personnel, consultants, and experiences outside of the school or agency. A monthly staff conference or a once-a-year visit by a consultant will not suffice. Too often a single activity is expected to meet too many needs of too many staff members. Consequently, the participants become disappointed with the activity. The use of several formats has greater potential for responding to all staff.

A well-developed program of inservice education might include a monthly staff conference, a monthly case conference, visits by a consultant on a particularly important topic of interest to the entire staff, and visits by teams of two or more staff members to workshops sponsored by professional organizations or other groups. An orientation seminar for new counselors might be part of the monthly staff conference. Staff members would also be encouraged to participate in individual activities such as participating in evening or weekend courses, joining and attending meetings of professional organizations, and reading professional literature.

Reduction of Anxiety

To *reduce performance fears* the director and staff should discuss apprehensions and anxieties prior to any inservice activity. Many successful workshops use a sensitivity technique at the beginning of the workshop to break the ice, to surface feelings of appre-

hension and resistance, and to establish greater feelings of trust and cohesiveness. Once these feelings are aired openly, many staff members become more willing to participate.

Provision of Reward

Another method of encouraging participation in non-mandatory activities is to *grant awards* to participants. For some counselors, additional certification, licensure, or academic credit or degrees are strong motivators. For other counselors, monetary rewards in terms of salary increases or paid expenses are primary. Still other counselors find released time from their jobs to be sufficient motivation to participate. To insure high levels of participation in activities, some form of external reward is necessary. Internal rewards are also important and require some recognition of those who are active in inservice activities.

Evaluation

Evaluation is an imperative in effective inservice programs. One purpose of evaluation is to assess the degree to which counselors demonstrate *mastery of the tasks or knowledge* for which the activity was designed. Evaluation should be ongoing and an integral part of each activity or series of activities. Obviously, the learning experiences must be structured so that they can be evaluated clearly.

The second facet of evaluation concerns the effect of the in-service activity on the *job performance* of staff members. For example, if a workshop was designed to stimulate counselors to

initiate more group counseling, then a simple pre-post survey of staff activities would reveal the outcomes from the workshop. If the workshop focused on use of new skills or techniques, a frequency count based on the self-report of staff members would probably be sufficient. However, in several of Howey's six areas of inservice education, the results of the activities can only be reflected in changes of attitudes or opinions, not in counseling behaviors with clients. For example, an inservice activity might be designed to increase understanding of self. Outcomes might be measured in terms of reported job satisfaction, amount of lateness or absenteeism, degree of responsibility-taking, and quality of relationships among staff. Changes in attitudes and opinions are difficult but not impossible to measure.

This section has examined some critical issues of inservice education and some approaches to inservice activities, and presented a number of recommendations for conducting effective inservice programs. A myriad of resources are now available to meet the needs of counseling staffs throughout the country. It is hoped that these suggestions will help directors of guidance counselors to choose wisely from among these resources so that the inservice training experiences will be rewarding and will lead to professional growth.

Section IV

CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In both preservice and inservice education of counselors little coordination exists among the providers of services such as universities, professional organizations, and state departments of education. The resources of these service providers should be coordinated with the needs of counselors in the most effective and efficient manner. In this section some suggestions are given which, if implemented, will help to bring structure to the relationship between service providers and service recipients.

1. Establish a committee or representative council on continuing education. Representatives of the state departments of education, counselor education departments, and professional organizations should establish a joint council whose primary task would be to coordinate the efforts of each of the member groups in inservice or continuing education. (Incidentally, the term continuing education or continuing professional development is used with increasing frequency and will soon replace the term inservice training.)

2. Delineate areas of responsibility for each of the three major groups represented on the council: state departments of education, counselor education departments, and professional organizations. Some areas of responsibility would be shared among the groups such as direct service, e.g., conducting workshops for counselors, with the question of content being a joint decision. For example, the Division of Guidance Services of the Pennsylvania Department of Education and Supervision conducted a series of workshops in Fall, 1978,

using members of both groups as presenters.

Another direct service of the council would be to coordinate and collect existing data on counselor needs. The council could make this information available to everyone on the council so that planning could proceed efficiently. Because many surveys have been conducted in recent years in states, state-wide data are usually available. In contrast, data on discrete institutions are usually lacking, and each school or agency should conduct a needs assessment to define the needs of their particular groups.

Cooperation is also important among service providers in offering indirect service. Indirect service refers to activities which are not designed to provide information or skills to a particular group of counselors, e.g., consultation. Any of the service providers could consult with local schools or agencies regarding organizing for inservice programs, conducting a needs assessment, establishing formats for inservice activities, staffing the activities, and evaluating individual activities and the entire program.

Other indirect services would be research and development of resources to be used by service recipients, e.g., guidelines for conducting a needs assessment. Other materials might include information on local jobs, strategies to support legislation affecting counseling, descriptions of skills, design of case studies, identification of current issues, or perhaps development of audiotapes or videotapes of counseling skills. For example, in 1978 the ACES

Commission on Sex Equality Concerns produced a package of training modules designed to promote sex equality (Thompson, 1978).

Another indirect service which could be offered by service providers would be a recognition system for counselors who participate in inservice activities. Awards might include graduate credit, certificates upon attainment of a prescribed number of hours, or monetary rewards such as reduced fees or stipends. Guidelines for the attainment of awards should also be developed by the council.

An indirect service closely related to the establishment of awards is the development of a data storage system for participants in inservice activities. If awards are to be cumulative, then a way of recording this information needs to be established at the state and/or national level. For example, the Continuing Education Unit system functions nationally, issues credit for approved inservice activities, and stores information on participants for later retrieval (National Task Force on the Continuing Education Unit, 1974).

Decisions about awards based on clear criteria may become of major importance as the profession moves toward certification and licensure. When state licensure laws for counselors are passed, requirements for specified amounts of continuing education are likely to be included. State certification requirements for school counselors may be modified to reflect licensure requirements. Consequently, permanent certification for school counselors might be abolished in favor of a system of certification renewal based on

continuing maintenance of competence. This has already occurred in the State of Washington (Bramner & Springer, 1971; Bruno, 1971; Shoemaker & Splitter, 1976).

Service deliverers must not only coordinate their efforts but also must work closely with service recipients to close the gap between preservice and inservice training. Several possible suggestions for closing this gap are presented here.

1. Service deliverers should conduct follow-up studies to determine if programs have any long-term effects.

2. The school or agency which received some form of general training should help counselors apply the acquired knowledge to specific job situations.

3. Professionals from state departments or counselor education departments should have frequent experience in the schools and agencies in order to know intimately the needs of the counselors.

4. Practicing counselors in schools and agencies should give students highly realistic training by accepting them in fieldwork or internship experiences.

In summary, the responsibility for educating counselors, both at the preservice and inservice stages of their careers, must be shared by all of the above-mentioned groups. Cooperation among professionals--service deliverers and service recipients--is essential to generate the understanding and insights that result in effective training programs. The improvement of both preservice and

inservice training programs will occur if all counseling professionals continue to strive for excellence.

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